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Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

Second, third and fourth periodic reports of States parties

Jamaica*

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* The present document is being issued without formal editing.

For the initial report submitted by the Government of Jamaica, see CEDAW/C/5/Add.38; for its consideration by the Committee, see CEDAW/C/SR.116 and CEDAW/C/SR.120, and *Official Records of the General Assembly, Forty-third Session, Supplement No. 38* (A/43/38), paras. 458–503.

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Introduction

1. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women was ratified by Jamaica on 19 October 1984. In 1985 Jamaica further committed itself to the struggle for women's equality by adopting the Forward Looking Strategies (FLS) generated at the Third World Conference on Women in Nairobi, Kenya.

2. In accordance with article 18, paragraph 1(a), of the above-mentioned Convention, Jamaica hereby submits its second, third, and fourth periodic reports to the Secretary General of the United Nations for consideration by the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

3. Following the submission of Jamaica's initial report (CEDAW/C/5/Add.38), no further reports were submitted. The present report, therefore, will seek to cover the three periods for which reports are now outstanding, namely: 1985-1988, 1988-1992, and 1993-1997.

4. The report is divided into two sections. Section I consists of general information which covers the demographic, social, economic, and political situation of Jamaica. Section II examines each article of the Convention and provides specific information on the measures in place, the developments achieved, and the obstacles faced in the procurement of women's rights.

I. GENERAL INFORMATION

A. Country Profile

Geographical Description

5. An island democracy based on the Westminster Parliamentary system of government, Jamaica is the third largest English speaking Caribbean country and became independent in 1962. The island is divided into 14 parishes and there are two main urban centres: Kingston - the capital, located in the South East section of the island, and Montego Bay, located on the North West Coast.

Population

6. At the end of 1989 the population of Jamaica was 2,392,300, this increased to 2,482,900 by the end of 1993 and stood at 2,527,700 by the end of 1996. The table which follows provides an outline of the changes in Jamaica's population over the period 1990-1996:

Population	Unit	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Growth Rate	% per annum	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.1
Crude Birth Rate	per 1,000 pop.	24.8	24.7	24.3	23.6	24.1	25.5	22.8
Crude Death Rate	per 1,000 pop.	5.1	5.5	5.5	5.7	5.5	6.1	5.9
Natural Increase	% per annum	19.7	19.2	18.8	17.9	18.6	19.1	16.9
Fertility Rate	% per annum	2.7	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0

Ethnic Composition

7. The people of Jamaica are mainly of African descent. The 1982 census indicates the distribution of the population by racial origin as follows:
Blacks (74.7%); East Indian (1.3%); Chinese (0.2%); white (0.2%); Mixed/Black (12.8%); Syrian/Lebanese (0.1%); other races (1.2 %); and not stated (9.5%).

Social and Economic Context

8. In spite of the social and political changes of the 1970's, Jamaican society remains largely stratified along lines of race and class. The social pyramid which is still formidable, has a very narrow apex consisting of, for the most part, white, pale-skinned, affluent people who are more socially powerful than the darker skinned, poorer and/or working class which forms the majority of the population.

The status of women in Jamaica over the last decade has been affected by a number of external as well as internal factors which are inter-related. Among these are the impact of the Global Debt Crisis and Structural Adjustment Policies which have had the following effects:

a) reduction of the standard of living of the majority of Jamaica's population
b) reduced government spending on social services
c) change in the structure of the labour market such that there has been a significant growth in the informal economy

These factors have effectively placed the burden of adjustment on low income earners, amongst which women are over represented.

9. The phenomenon of globalization has also been a major feature of the decade. Western consumer culture has been globalized, backed by advances in production methods and significant advances in science, technology and telecommunications. Western values of growth and progress

are now more widely accepted as the norm. The structure of global production methods has changed from mass production to niche marketing. The use of natural raw materials and fibres is increasingly being replaced by the use of synthetic materials which limit the level of traditional exports from countries like Jamaica. Digitalization, miniaturization, and other changes in technology and telecommunications have, in addition, revolutionized the speed of international communications and transactions. These changes have increasingly made Jamaica part of the global village as television has exposed people in remote villages to alternative values and lifestyles. Globalization in the form of new trading blocks, and agreements such as the North America Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), the Enterprise of the Americas Initiative, the Caribbean Basin Initiative and the Single European Market have all changed the terms and conditions of Jamaica's involvement in the world economy.

10. Increasingly, the export of raw materials is being replaced by the provision of services to the world economy, with the effect that the majority of investment has been in industries which use low-wage/cheap labour to produce goods for the world market. These include garments, textiles, and also data processing in Free Trade Zones (FTZs). While these industries provide women with much-needed jobs, reduce the level of unemployment among young women and increase foreign exchange earning to service Jamaica's external debt, there is very little transfer of technology to the country. Women who are the majority of the work force in these new industries have few prospects for promotion or opportunities to learn new skills. Working conditions are difficult and wages are low in relation to the cost of living. Global, political and ideological changes have resulted in a more homogenous Westernized free market ideology of development which presents tremendous challenges to developing countries like Jamaica competing on equal terms with developed countries. International and regional conflicts in Europe have also contributed to making Jamaica and most of the Caribbean a lower priority for international development assistance.

11. Since the 1980s Jamaica has remained locked into a Structural Adjustment Programme - SAP- fashioned and administered by the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Essentially, the programme is designed to drastically reduce state interference in the economy and so prescribes steps to remove state protection of the Private Sector in the interest of developing a Free Market. A main component of this approach has been the reduction of the size of the Public Sector's wage bill by the laying off of workers.

12. The main impact on the Private Sector has been the removal of tariffs from imported goods which has led to uneven competition, the folding of many local industries and companies, and severe pressures in other areas of the economy, especially in the agricultural sector.

13. The impact of SAPs on women has been especially critical and is of major concern to the country. The policies of the programme has so far resulted in:

a) a reduction in women's access to income since the highest levels of unemployment are in the social sector where women predominate

b) currency devaluations which increased the cost of food, fuel, and public utilities as well as other items

c) reduction of subsidies on basic food items.

The challenges created by SAPs have caused women to develop coping strategies in the face of economic hardships. The result of this is that many women have become entrepreneurs, establishing micro-enterprises locally or becoming informal commercial importers (ICIs), trading consumer items between Jamaica and other countries.

Political Context

14. After approximately 300 years of British rule, Jamaica became an independent nation on August 6, 1962. Since then it has maintained a Westminster style parliamentary democracy, the Parliament being comprised of an appointed Senate (upper house) and an elected House of Representatives (lower house). Jamaica's political executive includes the Governor-General, representing the Queen of England, Custodes, the Prime Minister, Ministers of Government and Ministers of State. Members of Parliament are elected at approximate five year intervals from the ranks of the two major political parties, the Jamaica Labour Party (JLP) and the Peoples National Party (PNP). A third political party, the National Democratic Movement (NDM), was started in 1996 and contested in the December 1997 general elections. The party however won no seat and therefore the composition of Parliament remains for the most part unchanged. None of the Governor-Generals, nor the Prime Ministers since political independence in 1962 has been a woman, and women have acted in both capacities only when the incumbents were away from the island.

15. Jamaican women have been involved in politics as activists since the days of slavery. Under the guise of social work, middle-class women were involved in political activity aimed at creating political reform and improving the conditions of working class women during the post-emancipation period. In 1944, in the first general election after Universal Adult Suffrage, of 32 seats available, only one woman was elected. Between 1980 and 1985, there were general elections in 1980 and 1983. Five female candidates were successful in the 1980 elections and 6 in 1983. In the 1989 general election, 3 women were elected, and 7 were elected in 1993. The number of women elected to Parliament, therefore, has moved from 1 out of 35 in 1944 to 7 out of 60 in 1993 and 8 out of 60 in1997.

B. Effects of Ratification of the Convention

16. Jamaica ratified the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1981. The National Policy Statement on Women was

developed by the Bureau of Women's Affair (BWA) in 1987 and an Inter-Ministerial Committee was set up to guide, monitor and ensure its implementation. The Statement was designed to ensure that the conditions outlined in the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, as well as the objectives of the Forward Looking Strategies were met.

17. In response to conditions outlined in the CEDAW document, the government of Jamaica has also made a number of important legislative changes over the past decade which have enhanced the status of women. These relate to the family, child maintenance, inheritance, citizenship, and matrimony. The establishment of the Family Court system, and a Sexual Offences Unit in the Police Force have also aided in the establishment of a better framework for handling families in crisis. These developments will be looked at in more details in Section II of the report.

C. Compliance with the Convention

18. There are several institutions and/or authorities in Jamaica which have the responsibility of ensuring that the principle of equality between men and women is complied with in practice.

19. The Bureau of Women's Affairs (BWA) was established in 1975 and is the main monitoring agency for government policy on women. The Bureau has as its objective, the promotion of: *policies, programmes and projects that [will] enable all women to achieve their greatest potential and respect as full participants in Jamaica's social and economic development*. Several projects and programmes particularly in public education have been implemented, but inadequate financial and human resources have hampered progress over the years..

20. Several non-governmental organizations have played an important complementary role to the government's programmes through the expansion of 'parenting education' training programmes, the establishment of shelters and counseling services for battered and abused women, research, documentation and public education programmes. The Women's Centre Foundation for adolescent girls was also established and has expanded its outreach to rural areas. The programme, which assists pregnant school girls to continue their education, learn parenting and vocational skills, and which also encourages the participation of 'baby-fathers' in caring for their children, has achieved creditable success. There has been a reduction in the number of school pregnancies among high school girls who come to the centre. Many of the young women have also been able to complete their education and go on to successful careers. Other projects such as the Teenage Mothers' Project have had similar success.

21. NGOs involved in these activities include:

a) The **Association of Women's Organisations of Jamaica (AWOJA)** founded in 1987 as an umbrella organisation to coordinate and monitor the activities of women's organisations island wide. It staged the third All Island Conference for Women in 1992.

b) The **Women's Political Caucus** established in 1992 and which initiated activities to prepare women for, and facilitate their involvement in representative politics.

c) The **St. Peter Claver Women's Housing Cooperative** is a self-help group which began in the 1980s to provide low-income housing for women, primarily those working in the Kingston Free Zone. Another women's housing cooperative based on this model has since merged with the St. Peter Claver group.

d) The **Women's Construction Collective** which trains women in construction skills and assists them in obtaining employment.

22. Should there be any discrimination against women in respect of their enjoyment of fundamental rights and freedoms, an application may be made under Section 25 of the Constitution to the Supreme Court for redress. An appeal against the judgement of the Supreme Court can be entered with the Court of Appeal.

D. Mechanisms to promote the advancement of women

23. The NGOs referred to in paragraph in 21 have all been very instrumental in promoting the advancement of women. Other NGOs not mentioned in that paragraph which have also been instrumental to that process are:

a) The **Council of Voluntary Social Services (CVSS)**, which is an umbrella organisation for all NGOs, providing coordination and training for a variety of organisations, including those with special programmes for women.

b) The **Sistren Theatre Collective**, a grass roots women's group which started in 1977, uses drama to mobilize women and community groups around issues. The programme has expanded to include:

   i) **Sistren Research** which researches and disseminates information, particularly through its newsletter.

   ii) **Sistren Textiles** which is an income generating project developing screen prints and printed T-shirts based on themes from the theatre's works.

24. A National Policy Statement on Women was prepared by the BWA, in response to the FLS, and was accepted by Cabinet in July 1987. The Bureau has sought to implement the policy initiatives through its public education and other programmes and through liaison and joint projects with relevant Ministries of Government, to ensure gender equity, participation and the

development of women.

E. Enforcing Provisions of the Convention

25. Except for any provision which reflects customary international law, the provisions of the Convention cannot be invoked directly but are implemented through national legislation. This will be discussed in greater detail under Article 2 and elsewhere in the report.

II. INFORMATION RELATING TO THE ARTICLES OF THE CONVENTION

Article 1

26. There is no definition of "discrimination against women" in the various legislative acts adopted by Jamaica's parliament. The concept of discrimination is however encoded in the Constitution which provides that there should be no discrimination on the basis of race, place of origin, political opinions, colour, creed or sex, in the enjoyment of fundamental rights and freedoms (Section 13, Chapter III of Jamaica's Constitution).

Article 2

27. Mention has already been made under Article 1 of the Constitutional provision for fundamental rights and freedoms. According to the Constitution, fundamental rights and freedoms are to be enjoyed by all Jamaicans irrespective of various factors, including sex. Jamaica's initial CEDAW report (CEDAW/C/5/Add.38) also makes mention of Section 4 of the Interpretation Act which states that in all legislation unless otherwise stipulated, words importing the masculine gender includes females. Accordingly, rights granted or duties imposed by legislation apply equally to women and men unless otherwise specifically stated.

28. Discrimination is proscribed when it is seen or shown to be evident in intent or effect. In accordance with this policy, several Acts have been passed. The earlier of these were covered by the above-mentioned report and include:

a) **The Equal Pay for Men and Women Act**
This Act was passed in 1975 and proscribed the practice of paying women less than men for comparable work;

b) **The Maternity Leave Act**
This Act was passed in 1979 and seeks to safeguard the position of employed pregnant women;

c) **The Passport Regulations Act**
This Act was amended in 1979, and gave women equal rights of consent as fathers for the issuance of passports to their children.

29 Legislation passed in the period being covered by this report include:

a) **The Matrimonial Causes Act 1989**
This Act abolished the old grounds for divorce, and substituted the single ground of irretrievable breakdown of the marriage. It also effected a number of other changes aimed at updating the law relating to matrimonial causes, the following, however, are of particular significance to women:

i) A husband's claim to damages for adultery has been abolished. This claim was based on the notion that a wife is the property of her husband.

ii) For the purpose of matrimonial proceedings, the domicile of a married woman is to be determined as if she were a single woman. The common law rule that a wife take her husband's domicile has therefore been modified.

iii) Section 10 of the Act confers on the Supreme Court the power to grant an injunction or other order on the application of either spouse for certain purposes, including, "for the personal protection of a party to the marriage or any relevant child."

b) **The Inheritance (Provision for Dependents) Act 1993**
This Act entitles the family members or dependents of a deceased person to apply to the court for maintenance provision out of the deceased's estate on the ground that the distribution of the estate according to the terms of the deceased's will or the law relating to intestacy fails to make such provision. A common-law spouse is among the persons entitled to apply.

c) **The Jamaican Nationality (Amendment Act) 1993**
This Act accomplishes two milestones which are of particular relevance to this article. The Act:

i) provides for the reacquisition of Jamaican citizenship by persons who had renounced such citizenship

ii) confers Jamaican citizenship in the case of a joint adoption on an adopted minor

where either of his/her adopters is a Jamaican citizen.

The provision at (i) is of particular benefit to women with foreign husbands who have had to relinquish their Jamaican citizenship in accordance with the law of their husband's country of domicile. The provision at (ii) entitles an adopted child to derive Jamaican citizenship through either his/her adopted mother or father and is a companion measure to the Citizenship Act 1993.

d) **Domestic Violence Act**
This was signed into law in 1996. Under the Act, applications may be made to a Resident Magistrate by the spouse in respect of whom domestic violence has been, or is likely to be engaged in by the respondent;

An amendment to a provision of the Act also allows a third party to make such an application for the abused spouse where she is afraid so to do.

The Act further allows a party to gain protection before the crime is committed and can prohibit, through an Order of the court, the respondent (the person against whom the applicant seeks the order) from entering or remaining in any area specified in the order. The Act also provides that a respondent can be prohibited from molesting a prescribed person by:

i) watching or besetting the household residence, place of work or education of the prescribed person

ii) following or waylaying the prescribed person in any place:

iii) making persistent telephone calls to the prescribed person; or

iv) using abusive language to or behaving towards a prescribed person in any other manner which is of such nature and degree as to cause annoyance to, or result in ill-treatment of the prescribed person.

Article 3

30. Steps continue to be taken, including legislation, to encourage the full integration of women in the development process and to ensure their enjoyment of Human Rights and fundamental freedoms on the basis of equality with men. Mention has already been made in this report of some of the measures (see paragraphs 19-25 and Article 2), employed by Jamaica to achieve this goal of full integration.

31. "Appropriate measures" to guarantee the exercise and enjoyment of Human Rights are reflected in the course of women's involvement in the political process and decision-making. This involvement has increased moderately, as had awareness of the need to create an environment in which women can participate more effectively. Much, however, remains to be done as women continue to be marginalised, especially within the most influential positions in Jamaica.
The reality of the situation, therefore, is that the number of women participating in policy-making decisions continue to be low. Since Jamaica's independence, for example, in 1962, women have only acted in the position of Governor-General or Prime Minister in the absence of the official male incumbents.

32. Notwithstanding, the National Policy Statement on Women (see paragraphs 17 and 25) represents a major milestone in securing the advancement of women. The goals of the document include, *inter alia:*

i) Recognizing the existing high levels of unemployment among women, and that women's employment and income have an immediate impact on the living standards of children;

ii) Recognizing that many areas of employment in which women predominate are also those which receive low renumeration and have poor working conditions;

iii) Recognizing that appropriate child care arrangements not only increase the efficiency of women workers but are an investment in the children and future of Jamaica;

iv) Recognizing that legal and administrative reforms are still required to achieve adequate protection and treatment of women under the law;

v) Recognizing that women are unique in their capacity to bear children and that many of our women remain unaware or powerless in controlling the frequency of conception and pregnancy, with detrimental effects on themselves and their families.

33. Access to education, training and employment, continue to be met by the government's Bureau of Women's Affairs, as well as the various NGOs referred to in paragraphs 21 and 23. The Women's Crisis Centre established in 1985 to provide temporary shelter and counseling for women who are victims of domestic violence, and the Women's Centre Foundation for adolescent girls which assists pregnant school girls to continue their education, learn vocational and parenting skills, are two of the institutions also involved in the task of promoting and supervising the advancement of women.

Article 4

Temporary special measures:

34. Recognizing that *in order to create equality it may be necessary to adopt measures which discriminate in a positive way*, the Bureau of Women's Affairs current priorities are geared towards young women (14-24 years), elderly women and domestic workers. These priorities include: education and training in non-traditional skills to reduce unemployment levels, particularly among young women and gender sensitivity training.

35. Workshops and educational audio-visual material are being used to achieve these objectives.

36. A Gender Monitoring Checklist has been formulated for use in appraising development projects for gender sensitivity. The Jamaica National Preparatory Commission reports, however, that the use of this check listing has been limited and its effectiveness has not been evaluated.

37. Jamaica's National Five Year Development Plan 1990-1995 also included a component on women. In the 1996/97 Budget Debate, the Prime Minister announced the Government's intention to establish a Commission on Gender and Social Equity. A Steering Committee has also been set up within the Policy Support Unit of the Office of the Prime Minister to recommend a framework for which gender equity can be achieved as a social policy goal and an empowerment process which can be sustained over time. The Commission works simultaneously with government organisations to incorporate gender and social equity in its machinery and has tabled an interim report in Parliament which will be studied by the Human Resources Committee of the Cabinet.

Maternity protection:

38. The Maternity Leave Act discussed in Jamaica's initial report, protects to some extent the employment rights of pregnant women. In addition, Regulation 65 which amended the Education Act by procuring maternity leave for teachers is also referred to in this initial report. Not referred to in that report but in existence as early as 1979 is a National Insurance Scheme Maternity Allowance for Domestic Workers. Domestic workers are among the worst paid workers in Jamaica and this scheme aims to provide financial assistance to them while they are gestating.

39. Women who are breast-feeding are also eligible for financial assistance under the national Food Stamp Programme.

40. The Government of Jamaica through an island wide network of health centres also provides comprehensive maternal and child health services which include ante, intra, and post-natal services, child health, immunization and family planning.

Article 5

41. In other parts of the report practical steps being taken by the government and NGOs to influence stereotypical attitudes and expectations of women are highlighted. These include the Bureau of Women's Affairs attempts to educate and gender sensitize the public (See paragraphs 35-37).

Article 5 (a)

42 As also pointed out in Jamaica's initial CEDAW report, among measures undertaken to combat the idea of female inferiority and break-down stereotypical role images are: the development of appropriate school curricula, media awareness efforts (including the use of non-sexist advertisement), and the use of drama, particularly through groups such as the Sistren Theatre Collective which is one of the original projects of the Bureau of Women's Affairs.

43. The Jamaica Constitution of 1962 addresses the matter of prejudices based in ideas of inferiority, as well as responsibility for the upbringing of children. In 1994 a process of Constitutional reform was started and the question of establishing clear guidelines for the elimination of discrimination against women were among the changes considered.

44. The perception of politics and politicians is one that discourages a number of women from entering the political process. The perception that politics is corrupt, wicked, and a male preserve, as well as the cost of accessing the political process, together result in the participation of very few women. Although women are the majority of political workers, very few of them participate at the decision-making level.

45. Interviews with women political activists at the grass roots level, and discussions in the National Consultations confirm that female participation in politics is confined almost exclusively to managing the electoral machinery, and not to making an input in policy-making decisions, even on issues affecting women. There has, however, been a very modest increase in the number of women elected to Parliament. As pointed out elsewhere in this report, in 1944, in the first general election after Universal Suffrage, of 32 seats available, only one woman was elected. Five female candidates were successful in the 1980 elections, and 6 in the 1983 elections. In the 1989 general election, 3 women were elected, and 7 were elected in 1993. The number of women elected to Parliament, therefore, has moved from one out of 35 in 1944 to 7 out of 60 in 1993 and 8 out of 60 in 1997.

46. Political education has, in recent times, been boosted by the Women's Political Caucus, a non-governmental organization established in 1992. This group has organised workshops, public fora, radio programmes and a number of other activities aimed at increasing women's awareness of the political process. The Women's Resource and Outreach Centers (WROC) and AWOJA have also sponsored education programmes. The Joint Trade Union's Research and Development Centers (JTURDC) staged a programme in the 1980s to increase women's understanding of power in the trade union movement, and trained them to access higher positions.

47. The conceptualization of education as predominantly a male domain has been affected by such affirmative actions as:

a) The elimination of fees up to the tertiary level which has enabled many women to improve their economic status through improved educational opportunities.

b) Amendments to the Education Regulations in 1980 and 1981 allowed pregnant school girls to sit examinations and gave maternity leave with pay to married and unmarried female teachers.

c) The government of Jamaica has also expanded its subsidy to the Woman's Centers Foundation which provides continuing education for pregnant school girls and also offers child care in order to allow young mothers to return to school after their babies are born.

48. Other changes which have taken place in the field of education include:

a) The introduction of technical drawing for all girls attending a "girls' high school".

b) The recent construction of accommodation for about 30 women at the Portmore HEART Academy for Building and Construction Skills. Previously, although access was open to both men and women, accommodation was only provided for male trainees.

49. Future strategic goals and objectives identified by the National Preparatory Commission in 1994 included:

1) The factorization of gender into education policy, planning and programming, to eliminate sex typed education and training in the curriculum of schools and other educational institutions, particularly teacher-training colleges.

2) The Ministry of Education and Culture must establish a policy to ensure that girls and boys are accepted into high schools on equal terms. The Common Entrance Examination as it is, currently discriminates against girls who score highly yet are unable to be placed because of a policy to maintain an approximate 1:1 male/female ratio in high schools.

3) The Ministry should also introduce pro-active policies and targets to change traditional sex-typed programming in vocational education programmes in both formal and non-formal educational institutions. Training programmes ought to be linked to employment opportunities identified through human resource planning. It is particularly important that non-formal education and training be provided for women in rural areas.

50. Mass media has been particularly destructive in the conception of "being female" over the years with the female's anatomy more often than not being commodified. The pass decade has,

however, seen drastic improvement in the projection of women. During the 1980s, space was created for women's issues in the print media. The Gleaner daily newspaper started a weekly Woman's Page and also the weekly Flair Supplement, the Jamaica Record (a past Jamaican daily newspaper) had regular features on women, and there has been an obvious effort in advertising to present images of women which are motivating and positive.

51. More female hosts appeared on the electronic media in programmes which addressed women's issues and which allowed call-ins from women needing advice and information. Radio-talk shows which had started with male hosts predominantly, gradually shifted to female hosts as well. This increased the number of calls from women and their participation in discussions on national and community issues which affected their lives.

52. A study of women in the Caribbean media was organised through the Caribbean Institute of Mass Communication (CARIMAC) UWI, Mona in 1993. The study reports:

a) a pyramid structure of women's employment in the media with most at the bottom as reporters, presenters and editors, and few in middle or top management or policy making. The study also confirmed that although many women work in the media, their access to the Board is low, rarely more than 20 or 30 percent attaining this level.

b) gender stereotyping reflected in few female engineers, technicians, camera operators; few women in sports, photography and cartoons.

c) institutional discrimination such as long hours which exert a negative impact on family responsibilities and "psychological pressure from men in the establishment" especially for women in decision-making positions. These factors adversely affected women's career opportunities.

d) stereotyped content (print, electronic media and advertising). There was a consensus that physical appearance, violence, crime and spectacular issues featuring women are aired regularly, while major issues such as legal rights, parenting, financial issues and entrepreneurship are covered less regularly.

53. Women's Media Watch was formed in 1987. A research project conducted by Sistren Research identified violence against women at personal, community and national levels as a serious hindrance to development. Because of this study a group was established to monitor the media and to assess the link between violence and the overt as well as implicit messages which are communicated in media programmes and presentations. The objectives of Women's Media Watch are *inter alia:*

(a) to develop media critique skills, especially as these relate to gender roles

(b) to lobby programme directors to ensure that material which suggests, condones or

encourages violence is not screened, aired or printed.

(c) to lobby advertisers to ensure that they adhere to their operating code.

54. The Press Association of Jamaica on its fiftieth anniversary appointed its first female president in 1993.

55. New radio stations and a new television station have entered the media market, and these have provided opportunities for women in management. More women are involved in the management of these companies than in the older media houses.

Article 5 (b)

56. The National Family Planning Board as well as the BWA are actively involved in promotional programmes to orient the public on parenthood and the equal responsibility of both parents in the rearing and development of children. Both organizations seek to promote the stability of the family and the protection of children, as well as the integration of fathers in the parenting process.

Article 6

57. Exploitation of women through trafficking and prostitution is addressed by the Offences Against the Person Act which states in part:

whosoever shall by force take away or detain, against her will any woman of any age, with intent to marry or carnally know her, or cause her to be married or carnally known by any other person, shall be guilty of felony, and, being convicted thereof, shall be liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding fourteen years, with or without hard labour

58. The Act further states :

whosoever shall unlawfully take, or cause to be taken, any unmarried girl being under the age of sixteen years, out of the possession and against the will of her father or mother, or of any other person having the lawful care or charge of her, shall be guilty of misdemeanor, and on being convicted thereof, shall be liable to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three years with or without hard labour

59. The Offences Against the Person Act also makes provision concerning prostitution. According to the Act any person who:

(a) *procures or attempts to procure any girl or woman under eighteen years of age, not being a common prostitute, or of known immoral character, to have unlawful carnal*

connection, either within or without this island, with any other person ; or

(b) *procures or attempts to procure any woman or girl to become either within or without this island, a common prostitute; or*

(c) *procures or attempts to procure any woman or girl to leave this island, with intent that she shall become a prostitute, or an inmate of, or frequent a brothel elsewhere; or*

(d) *procures or attempts to procure any woman or girl to leave her usual place of abode in this island (such place not being a brothel), with intent that she may, for the purposes of prostitution, become an inmate of or frequent occupant of a brothel within or without this island, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and being convicted thereof, shall be liable to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three years with or without hard labour;*

60. No person shall be convicted of any offence under this section upon the evidence of one witness, unless such witness be corroborated in some material particular by evidence implicating the accused.

Article 7

61. In Jamaica every citizen, regardless of sex, race, political opinion, colour or creed, has the right to take part in the conduct of public affairs directly or through freely elected representatives. Every citizen also has the right to vote and to be elected to political office at elections which are constitutionally provided to be held at least every four years.

62. The Sex Disqualification Act makes it unlawful for a woman to be excluded from public, civil, or judicial office because of her sex or her marital status.

63. It should be noted, however, that there are qualifications as to the age of persons to be elected to the House of Representatives as well as those with the right to vote. Section III (3)a of Representation of the Peoples Act states that no person is entitled to vote if he or she is under the age of 18 years. Section 39 of the Constitution bars any person under the age of 21 from membership in the senate and in the House of Representatives.

64. Although small in numbers, women *are* involved in Jamaica's political process. A look at the statistics which follows highlights this:

- In Jamaica there are 14 custodes, one to each parish, with the responsibility of representing the Governor-General in the appointed parish. Of these 14 custodes, 13 are male, and one is female.

- Of thirteen mayors, again representing the 14 parishes, 3 are females.

- In 1994, of 187 Local Government Councilors, 24 were women.

- Jamaica's Parliament is divided into two sections, the Senate or Upper House, and the House of Representatives or Lower House. The Senate consists of 21 appointed members, including the President of the Senate, while the House of Representatives consists of 60 elected members.

- The leader of the Senate as at September 7, 1995 was a female, while three of the remaining twenty senators were females. The House of Representatives, on the other hand, as at June 1996, included 6 females.

- Following the December 1997 elections a female was sworn in as Jamaica's first female speaker of the house, while the deputy speaker of the last Parliament was also female.

65. There is, in Jamaica, a perception that women are making rapid advances up the corporate ladder. The reality is, however, that for every 100 working women, only about eight have some kind of administrative position and a good portion of this number is to be found in teaching and nursing.

66. Women are just now becoming more visible in the trade unions. A 1994 report on the status of women in Jamaica reveals that The Trade Union Education Institute at the University of the West Indies employs a female staff tutor who is involved in education and training programmes with women in trade unions. The same report also reveals that the number of professional women and those involved in business increased between 1985 and 1993.

67. Women are also actively involved in non-governmental organisations such as the Women's Political Caucus which prepares women for entrance in public and political life.

Article 8

68. Women in the Jamaican Foreign service do have equal access to diplomatic and international posts with men once they possess the required qualifications and professional experience.

69. In the diplomatic service (the Foreign Service Category) the ratio of women to men at various levels is as follows:

Grades	Level	Ratio (%) Women	Men
Permanent Secretary Heads of Missions Principal Directors (SEG Grade 7) (FSO Grade 8)	Executive Management	30	70
Heads of Missions Directors (FSO Grades 5, 6 and 7)	Senior Management	40	60
Deputy Directors Deputy Heads of Missions Foreign Service Officers (FSO Grades 3 and 4)	Middle Management	77	23
Foreign Service Officers (FSO Grades 1 and 2)	Junior Administrators	73	27

70. There is, in addition, a provision in the Foreign Service Regulations which allows for joint postings of spouses within the Jamaica Foreign Service where it is possible and convenient.

71. The ratio of women to men heading diplomatic missions of Jamaica overseas is as follows:

Women 38 % Men 62%

Notwithstanding the figures, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs purports to give equal consideration to women and men based on qualifications, experience and the needs of the Ministry in the filling of vacancies within Jamaican Embassies/High Commissions overseas.

Article 9

72. Amendments to the Jamaican Nationality and Citizenship Acts (1993) have gone a long way in ensuring women the right to acquire, change or retain their nationality:

The Jamaican Nationality (Amendment) Act 1993:

(a) provides for the reacquisition of Jamaican citizenship by persons who had renounced such citizenship

(b) confers Jamaican citizenship in the case of a joint adoption, on an adopted minor where either of the adopters is a Jamaican citizen

The provision at (a) is of particular benefit to women with foreign husbands who have had to relinquish their Jamaican citizenship in accordance with the law of their husband's country of domicile. The provision at (b) entitles an adopted child to derive Jamaican citizenship through either his/her adopted mother or father and is a companion measure to the Citizenship (Constitutional Amendment) Act 1993.

Citizenship (Constitutional Amendment) Act 1993

73. Briefly, this Act provides for the derivation of Jamaican citizenship, by a person born outside of Jamaica through either parent, and for the entitlement of men who marry Jamaican women to acquire Jamaican citizenship by registration. This amendment removed certain imbalances between the sexes as regards their ability to pass on Jamaican citizenship to their children born outside of Jamaica and the entitlement of spouses to Jamaican citizenship by reason of marriage. This is in contrast to the old Citizenship Act under which the father was the only person through whom citizenship could be granted - children by descent, the wife by entitlement to be registered.

Article 10

74. Although a number of changes have taken place in the Education Sector since 1985, their planning and implementation have not been guided by any gender analysis, and so no specific provisions have been made for female as against male students. There has also been no gender impact analysis of projects undertaken which would have provided information on the differences on girls and boys of the initiatives which have been implemented. Some of these initiatives, however, are:

a) The conversion of some New Secondary Schools to High Schools. The government of Jamaica (GOJ) Secondary Schools Upgrading Project is designed to upgrade 79 New Secondary Schools to High Schools through physical upgrading, teacher training and reclassification.

b) A Human Resources Development Project was launched in 1989 to improve the quality of pre-primary and basic education, educational services delivery, encourage more community involvement in education and support various aspects thereof. The Primary

Education Programme (GOJ/USAID) initiated in 1991 is a supportive of this Project and also involves financial assistance for refurbishing schools, introducing book rental schemes and provision of educational grants. Some of the components of this Project include:

i) The Programme for the Advancement of Childhood Education (PACE) which provided improved physical facilities to 200 pre-primary schools and 3,150 teachers, almost exclusively female, with in-service training.

ii) The GOJ/World Food Programme School Feeding Programme which provided approximately 305, 000 students with cooked food or nutribuns and milk.

c) A National Assessment Programme has been developed and implemented. The GOJ/UNDP Education Sector Management Project (ESM), introduced in 1990 and extended to 1993, developed testing and evaluation instruments for stage achievement testing of students as well as for the appraisal of teachers.

d) The National Training Agency (NTA) was established in 1991, to coordinate government sponsored training island wide, including that offered through the Human Employment and Resource Training (HEART) programme. The NTA has responsibility for promoting and regulating technical and vocational training to meet the needs of the country, and for maintaining standards.

e) There are two projects supplying textbooks for use in schools. In both, there is an urgent need for content analysis of the text to determine gender bias and eliminate as exists, from the material.

f) The Reform of Secondary Education (ROSE) Project is currently underway, and as part of curriculum reform, Resource and Technology is to be introduced as a subject area for all students in grades 7-9. Such a provision should end the Male - Industrial Arts/Female - Domestic Science segregation in schools.

g) The Government of Jamaica expanded subsidy to the Women's Centre Foundation, which provides continuing education for pregnant school girls and also offers child care in order to allow them to return to school after their baby is born.

75. A number of smaller changes have taken place on an individual institutional basis. Examples are:

a) The introduction of technical drawing for all girls attending a girls' high school.

b) The recent construction of accommodation for about 30 women at the Portmore HEART Academy for Building and Construction Skills. Previously, although access was open to both men and women, accommodation was only provided for

male trainees.

c) The University of The West Indies established its Distance Teaching Enterprise (UWIDITE) which allows women and men across the Caribbean to obtain access to university courses while remaining in their home communities. This, and the fact that courses have been mainly offered in Education, probably account for the strong involvement of women in using this mode of delivery.

d) The Women and Development Studies Programme at the University of the West Indies (UWI) which was initiated in 1982 has expanded to include a Centre for Gender and Development Studies which was established in September of 1983. Since 1986 a Project of Cooperation in Teaching and Research in Women and Development Studies has linked UWI with the Institute of Social Studies (ISS) in the Hague through funding from the Netherlands Ministry of Development Cooperation.

76. Several Institutions and Programmes have also been established island wide. These include:

a) The National Council on Education, launched in 1993. This is expected to act as a liaison between school communities and the policy making arm of the Ministry of Education.

b) The University Council of Jamaica, which accredits, monitors, and accesses post-secondary and tertiary institutions in an attempt to maintain adequate standards.

c) The Joint Council for Tertiary Education (JCTE) formed in 1991 and representing all public post-secondary and tertiary institution as well as registered private tertiary institutions and training units. The Council addresses common problem-solving, promotes communication, cooperation, integrated planning, and coordinates policy recommendations to the Ministry of Education.

77. Other initiatives which have assisted women and men in their educational pursuits include:

a) Increased financial assistance for students through loans.

b) The expansion of programmes in the areas of architecture, entrepreneurship and management training.

c) Institutions of special arrangements to facilitate access to training in the nursing and teaching professions which are the professions usually dominated by women. Potential trainees are accepted and provided with instruction to help them qualify for entry.

d) Reintroduction of Teachers' Scholarships to the University of the West Indies, as part of the World Bank Project. Special incentives are also being offered to Science teachers on the understanding that they must teach following graduation.

e) Establishment of facilities to test gifted children and those with learning disabilities, and the inclusion of special provision for these children in some schools.

f) Continuation of support for children from churches and private institutions. This plays an important role in supplementing the government's resources in this area.

78. In 1994 the Ministry of Education released a booklet which provided a gendered break-down of educational data for the period 1993-1994. Some of these are highlighted in the following tables:

Distribution of Enrolment at The Early Childhood Level By School Type and Gender
1993/94

SCHOOL TYPE	TOTAL ENROLMENT	% Male	% Female
Basic Schools Recognized	98, 401	49.6	50.4
Basic Schools Unrecognized	10, 037	50.4	49.6
Infant Schools	10, 047	48.9	51.1
Infant Dept (Primary)	4, 137	48.6	51.4
Infant Dept. (All Age)	1, 832	51.8	48.2
TOTAL	124, 454	49.6	50.4

Distribution of Enrolment at the Primary Level by Grade 1993/94

GRADE	MALE	% MALE	FEMALE	% FEMALE	TOTAL
1	26, 925	50.0	26, 925	50.0	53, 850
2	26, 553	51.9	24, 649	48.1	51, 202
3	26, 714	51.2	25, 494	48.8	52, 208
4	27, 356	51.3	25, 927	48.7	53, 283
5	26, 592	50.9	25, 695	49.1	52, 287
6	24, 343	48.2	26, 198	51.8	50, 541
TOTAL	158, 483	50.6	154, 888	49.4	313, 371

Percentage Distribution of Enrolment at the Secondary Level by Gender and School Type 1993/94

SCHOOL TYPE	TOTAL		PERCENTAGE		TOTAL	TOTAL
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Enrolment	Percentage
All Age	26,870	24,142	52.7	47.3	51,012	23.6
Primary & Junior High	2,192	2,037	51.8	48.2	4,229	2.0
New Secondary	24,893	21,205	54.0	46.0	46,098	21.3
Secondary High	26,744	40,220	39.9	60.1	66,964	31.0
Comprehensive High	15,540	16,536	48.4	51.6	32,076	14.8
Technical High	6,977	7,483	48.3	51.7	14,460	6.7
Vocational / Agricultural	637	572	52.7	47.3	1,209	0.6
TOTAL	103,853	112,195	48.1	51.9	216,048	100.0

Enrolment in the College of Arts, Science and Technology by Sex and Department
1993/94

DEPARTMENTS	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL
Building	374	81.5	85	18.5	459
Caribbean School of Architecture	80	69.0	36	31.0	116
Commerce	621	30.0	1452	70.0	2073
Computer Studies	389	56.1	304	43.9	693
Engineering	1095	95.5	52	4.5	1147
Hospitality and Food Science	49	10.9	399	89.1	448
Science and Health Science	139	31.0	309	69.0	448
Technical Education	140	25.0	421	75.0	561
TOTAL	2887	48.6	3058	51.4	5945

Registration of Jamaican Undergraduate Students in Degree Courses at The University of the West Indies by Campus and Faculty 1993/94

FACULTY	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL
Agriculture	29	78.4	8	21.6	37
Arts and General Studies	245	19.0	1047	81.0	1292
Education	40	24.1	126	75.9	166
Engineering	154	82.4	33	17.6	187
Law	48	32.7	99	67.3	147
Medicine	143	42.4	194	57.6	337
Nursing	-	-	-	-	-
Social Sciences	603	34.6	1139	65.4	1742
Natural Sciences	675	53.7	583	46.3	1258
TOTAL	1937	37.5	3229	62.5	5166

79. The tables indicate that although school enrolment levels for girls and boys are comparable at the primary level, more girls than boys are enrolled in secondary education. The sex difference is particularly noticeable in the secondary high schools which offer a predominantly academic education and direct access to university. Enrolment at the University of the West Indies has been predominantly female since the early 1980s and in the 1993/94 academic year, women accounted for 63 percent of the enrolment.

80. In Jamaica, the same opportunities also exist for men and women to access programmes of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes. A look at the statistics of institutions which offer continuing education programmes will reveal that female students, for the most part, do outnumber their male counterparts. The statistics on part-time registration to community colleges for the academic year 1992/93 further confirms this fact.

Percentage Enrolment in Community Colleges By Sex and Institution 1992/3

COLLEGES	PART TIME				
	Male	%	Female	%	Total
Browns Town	85	19.6	349	80.4	434
Exed	775	51.7	725	48.3	1500
Knox	235	36.2	415	63.8	650
Montego Bay	120	31.6	260	68.4	380
Portmore	117	33.1	236	66.9	353
Total	1332	40.2	1985	59.8	3317

81. The Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy Limited (JAMAL) is one of the chief organisations in Jamaica responsible for providing a functional literacy programme. The movement was established in 1974 with the following objectives:

(1) to eradicate illiteracy in Jamaica in the shortest time possible

(2) to improve the literacy skills of the adult population in Jamaica

(3) to develop human resources and so enable adult citizen to participate meaningfully in the social, economic and cultural development of the country.

82. The new mission for the 90's and beyond is:

To provide, in partnership with other organizations, an opportunity, through non-formal adult education programmes for participants to improve their literacy, numeracy and life skills with a view to empowering them to participate more fully in the determination of their economic, social, and cultural development.

83. The facilities of the JAMAL Foundation are available to both men and women, and to date over 248,000 persons have been made literate since the start of the programme.

84. The rate of female students drop-out has been positively affected by such organisations as the Women's Centre which assists pregnant school girls to continue their education, learn parenting and vocational skills and which also encourages the participation of fathers. There has also been a reduction in the number of second pregnancies among high school girls who come to the Centre. Many of these young women have been able to complete their education and go on to successful careers.

85. Just as academic education is available to both sexes, physical education and sports are also open to all. There is, however, a distinct preference among girls and boys for particular sports, for example, football and basketball for boys, and sports such as netball for girls. Recent trends to engender sports, such as female football and cricket, are seeing the entrance of women in sports traditionally regarded as "male sports".

86. Health centers, clinics and hospitals across the island are provided with brochures which in simple, easy to understand language provide information on those ailments of high incidence in Jamaica (for example, cervical cancer, hypertension, diabetes). In addition, the government of Jamaica through an island wide network of health centers (353) provides comprehensive maternal and child health services which include ante, intra and postnatal services, child health, immunization and family planning. The government's endorsement of the primary health care strategy in 1978 is well established in its organisation of basic care for women and children in the population. Approximately 50 non-governmental organisations participate in the provision of health care. These include: the Jamaica Cancer Society, the Diabetic Association of Jamaica and the HEART Foundation of Jamaica.

87. Family planning services are available island wide in the public health system. Government and church-affiliated counseling centers also offer guidance for physical and psychological problem.

Article 11

88. Provisions have been made under the law which speak to the conditions and terms under which men and women work. These will now be looked at briefly.

89. The National Minimum Wage Order 1975, The Employment (Termination and Redundancy Payments) Act 1974 and The Holidays with Pay Act 1947 although not strictly 'women's acts' are the acts which are of particular relevance to working women.

90. The first sets the basic pay for all categories of workers, the second stipulates how much notice is required when a worker is fired, and the third deals with holidays and sick leave.

91. The Employment (Termination and Redundancy Payments) Act stipulates that any worker who has been continuously employed for four weeks or more is to be given two weeks notice (or pay in lieu of notice). For a person employed over five years, the notice is to be four weeks, for ten years, six weeks, and eight weeks for those employed over fifteen years.

92. Redundancy payments are to be made where an employee has been continuously employed for one hundred and four weeks (two years). The redundancy pay is two weeks pay for each year of employment up to ten years and three weeks pay for each year thereafter.

93. In case of questions or problems the worker or employer is entitled to access the Ministry of Labour for assistance.

94. The 1975 Employment (Equal Pay For Men and Women) Act had as it's main object the elimination of discrimination between the sexes in the payment for the performance of similar work for the same employer. There has, however, been no attempt to create an analogue of the diverse forms of employment to effect a semblance of parity. For example, a title may protect the employer from prosecution where he pays the Administrative Assistant - a woman- half of what he pays the Management Consultant - a man- although they do the same work and have the same responsibilities. Further, 'male' fields of employment attract a higher level of renumeration than primarily 'female' fields. Construction work for example, a male dominated field, tends to be much higher paid than office work.

95. One of the areas in which the law recognises women to the exclusion of men is in the Maternity Leave With Pay Act, 1979. This Act is an attempt to safeguard the position of women when pregnancy interrupts their employment.

96. The Act grants such women the right to three months maternity leave, two at which they obtain normal wages. To qualify a woman must have been employed for fifty-two weeks with the same employer.

97. Men obtain no such leave, although it can be argued that they ought to be given some period of time to remain at home with their child and partner for the benefit of the family. It is interesting to note that the Jamaica Defence Force has provisions to grant maternity leave to men.

98. As employed women, Domestic Helpers fall into their own special category. Maternity leave with pay for this group would be the minimum wage for eight weeks, provided that the necessary contributions to the National Insurance Scheme have been made. In many cases remittances are not made as this would be to deduct sums from already meagre pay packages.

99. Few Helpers agree to the deductions, few employers trouble to make them. Helpers, by and large, tend to have no National Insurance Benefit or National Housing Trust Benefit, and are left without pension when they are no longer able to work.

100. To ensure parity between working men and women, attempts have to be made to create an analogue of areas of employment so that covert discrimination by ways of title be impermissible.

101. Maternity leave should also be granted to fathers to the end of strengthening the family unit.

102. Maternity leave for Helpers need also to be placed on par with that of other categories of workers.

103. A 1994 publication by the Jamaica Information Service of a message by the Minister of Labour and Welfare provides a picture of the actual situation of women on the job market:

- there are twice as many women out of work as there are men.
- Some 18,000 male heads of households are unemployed but there are 29, 000 female heads of household who are not working.
- Employed women are still mainly to be found in low-paying jobs and low-income earning activities.
- For every 100 working women, only about eight have some kind of administrative position and a good portion of this number is to be found in teaching and nursing.

104. The analysis which now follows utilises data from *Economic and Social Survey Jamaica 1989, 1994 and 1996* and provides a realistic expose` of matters relating to women in the job market. To ensure an adequate coverage of the periods under review and still maintain brevity, information was pooled predominantly from the reports referred to in the preceding sentence. During 1989, employment steadily increased to a total of 881,100. The unemployment rate for women, however, was more than twice that for men: 26.1 per cent as against 10.9 per cent. The data garnered from the above sources indicate that although women constituted 46.4 per cent of the labour force, their share of employment was only 41.8 per cent. This is in spite of gains in the employment of yc ıng women, which moved up 2.2 per cent to 75,000 and female household heads which rose by 2.9 per cent to 136,400. The Table which follows documents the main labour force indicators for 1989:

1989:

Table
Main Labour Force Indicators By Sex, 1989
('000)

Main Indicators	Feb	April	July	Oct	Year average
Both sexes					
Labour Force	1065.8	1065.2	1062.1	1058.5	1062.9
Employed Labour Force	861.9	867.7	876.5	881.1	871.8
Unemployed Labour Force	203.9	197.5	185.6	177.4	191.1
Unemployment Rate	19.1	18.5	17.5	16.8	18.0
Job Seeking Rate	10.0	10.1	9.7	8.2	9.5
Male					
Labour Force	571.1	569.7	567.2	569.8	569.5
Employed Labour Force	506.8	502.0	504.8	515.7	507.3
Unemployed Labour Force	64.3	67.7	62.4	54.1	62.1
Unemployment Rate	11.3	11.9	11.0	9.5	10.9
Job Seeking Rate	6.3	7.2	6.6	5.2	6.3
Female					
Labour Force	494.7	495.5	494.9	488.7	493.5
Employed Labour Force	355.1	365.7	371.7	365.7	364.6
Unemployed Labour Force	139.6	129.8	123.2	123.3	129.0
Unemployment Rate	28.2	26.2	24.9	25.2	26.1
Job Seeking Rate	14.3	14.0	14.0	12.1	13.6

Employment Changes by Age and Sex

105. Young workers were "better-off" in 1989 than they had been a year earlier. Both young men and women (under 25 years) experienced increases in their employment levels. The former grew by 1.5 per cent to 132,700 and the latter by 2.2 per cent to 75,000. However, this growth in employment of the youth was accompanied by a decline in employment of adult men and women, down by 3,600 to 374,600 and 2,300 to 289,500 respectively. Although the four major demographic groups in the labour market experienced increases in employment between November 1988 and October 1989, the increases among the youth were much greater, however,

with young men showing an increase of 9.3 per cent to 139,900 and young women a 7.3 per cent increase to 77,600. Overall, there was an increase of 9,300 in total employment over the period.

Employment by Household Status

106. There was a 2.4 per cent decline to a level of 405,200 in employment among household heads between 1988 and 1989. With respect to gender composition, employment among female household heads increased by 3.0 per cent to 136,400, while there was a significant contraction of 5.0 per cent among male heads of households to a level of 268,800. In 1989, male household heads accounted for 30.8 per cent of the total number of employed persons, whereas female household heads accounted for 15.6 per cent.

Full and Part-Time Employment

107. There was an increase in the number of persons working full-time (33 or more hours per week) between 1988 and 1989. This number increased by 9,800 to 779,500, while the number of part-time workers decreased by approximately 12,000.

108. Part-time workers (92,300 during 1989) represented 10.6 per cent of all persons at work, 59.9 per cent of whom were estimated to be women.

Unemployment

109. Young persons (25 years and under) and women have tended to experience higher unemployment levels and rates. There was no deviation from this pattern in 1989 as the unemployment rate among young persons was just over three times that of adult workers; 34.1 per cent as against 11.2 per cent. Young women were the worst off in this group with an unemployment rate of 47.1 per cent. Reflecting this pattern of unemployment, the data showed that of the 191,100 persons unemployed during the year, 109,400 (57.2 per cent) were young persons and 123,300 (64.5 per cent) were women.

110. Of the four major demographic groups, only one showed an increase in its rate of unemployment between 1988 and 1989. This was adult women whose unemployment increased from 14.9 per cent to 16.7 per cent. The increase in the unemployment rate of this group was attributed mainly to a reduction in activity in the apparel and sewn-products sub-sector which has been the primary contributor to increase the female employment since 1985.

The Labour Force

111. While the labour force remained virtually unchanged over the first three quarters of the year, it decreased by 3,600 in the last quarter. As a result, the labour force for 1989 was estimated at 1,062,900 or 1.3 per cent less than that for 1988. Although both the male and female components of the labour force declined between 1988 and 1989, the decline in the former was

more pronounced. The male labour force registered a decrease of 9,100 to average 569,500 in 1989 while the female labour force decreased by 5,400 to 493,500 over the same period. Despite these decreases, however, there was virtually no change in the proportion of males and females in the labour force which stood at approximately 54.0 and 46.0 per cent respectively.

1994:

112. Employment as at 1993 averaged 906,300. The male employed labour force stood at 509,200 for the same period while the female employed labour force averaged 397,100. Between October 1993 and January 1994, a total of 13,000 jobs were created and between January and April, employment continued to grow, although more moderately. The level fell by mid-year but rebounded to the highest level in recent times (924,200) to average 923,100, a 1.9 per cent rise above 1993. Males were the greater beneficiaries of the large growth in employment at the beginning of the year. They were employed in 10,400 of the jobs created which contributed significantly to the male employed labour force achieving a high average for the year of 519,900 or a 2.1 per cent improvement over 1993. Growth of the female employed labour force was less pronounced averaging 403,200 or 1.5 per cent, indicating a net job creation of 6,100.

Employment by Age and Gender

113. Employment of the four major demographic groups in the labour force rose in 1994. Among youths, a total of 3,200 and 3,400 more males and females (14-24 years) respectively were employed. The employment level of the former grew by 2.5 per cent to average off at 133,400 while the latter rose by 4.1 per cent and averaged 85,800. Among males, the older (20-24 years) cohort was the beneficiary of the increased employment, while for females, the younger cohort (under 20 years) received 62 per cent. Of note, is the rebound between July and October of the female employed labour force (up 5,600 following a sharp decline of 3,900 in April).

114. Regarding the employment position of adults (25 years and over), male employment rose by two per cent for a gain of 7,500 jobs to average 386,500. In the case of adult females, there was a moderate improvement of 2,800 (slightly less than one per cent) increasing the employment level to 317,500.

115. With regard to the share of employment of the major demographic groups, adults over 25 years represented 76.3 per cent of the total workforce during 1994 with males accounting for 54.9 per cent of this number The share of employment for young males under 25 years was 62.7 per cent of the total for young persons. These employment shares remained virtually unchanged compared with 1993.

Employment by Household Status

116. The rise in employment level of male heads of households in 1993 continued into 1994. During 1994 this group's employment level rose, peaking in July to an unprecedented high of

280,800. However, this was not maintained and for 1994 it averaged 276,400 or a 1.1 per cent increase above 1993. Conversely, the employment level of females classified as heads of households decreased by 2.1 per cent to average 160,500 (with the higher levels of employment occurring in January and October). Fewer persons classified as male spouses were employed, down by 6.5 per cent to 46,200 while the number of employed female spouses rose by 2.7 per cent to 109,300. The employment rate for male heads of households (94.6 per cent) remained virtually unchanged but continued to be higher than for females (84.5 per cent).

Full and Part-Time Employment

117. During 1994, full-time employment increased to record levels while part-time employment declined. The year's average for the former increased by 4.2 per cent to 838,600 workers its highest in recent times. By contrast part-time employment fell by 16.9 per cent to 84,500, implying a possible decrease in visible underemployment of labour. A total of 37,500 males and 47,000 females worked part-time, being respectively 17.8 per cent and 16.2 per cent lower than in 1993. It has been observed that comparatively more men work full-time, and more women work part-time. For example, in 1993 and 1994 the ratio of males to females averaged 1.4:1 for full-time employment and 0.8:1 for part-time.

Employment by Occupation

118. In terms of occupational groupings, net additions were most pronounced within the craft and related trades workers category, as 8,700 persons gained employment to give a total of 164,100. This increase in employment may have been related to the growth in the construction sector. Men were the main beneficiaries of the increase as this occupational group is traditionally dominated by men, and in 1994, approximately four in every five craftsmen were males. Employment of plant, machine operators and assemblers also rose, with an additional 2,700 gaining employment to bring the group's employment level to 60,200. Although this vocation is highly male dominated, two-thirds of the new openings in 1994 were filled by females.

119. More legislators, senior officials and managers were employed with the number rising by 7,000 to 36,000. Legislators and senior officials are predominantly public sector employees, while "managers" are mainly employed in the private sector. Therefore, given the downsizing of the public sector and expansion of the service-producing sectors, the growth in employment in this occupational group is likely to be attributable to increased managerial opportunities in the services-producing sectors. Here again more women were employed than men as 63 per cent of the jobs created employed women. Employment of technicians and associate professionals such as engineering technicians, fire inspectors, nurse practitioners, and travel consultants increased marginally to register 32,400 workers. An additional 5,800 clerks were employed culminating in an estimated 77,500. Clerks are predominantly females, with approximately four in every five clerks being women, hence 70 per cent of the new employees were women. The increase in the number of clerks possibly resulted from the recorded expansion of the services-producing sectors.

UNEMPLOYMENT

120. The male unemployed labour force which had been rising since 1991, declined sharply, down by 7200 (11.6 per cent) to register 54,900. This decline is primarily a consequence of the growth experience in construction, the community, social and personal services and financial services sectors. Unemployment of women improved but to a lesser extent than that of men. A total of 2,100 fewer women were out of work as the female unemployed labour force decreased to 112,500 or 1.8 per cent below the 1993 figure. The downward move is partially attributable to the increase in employment opportunities in the female dominated wholesale and retail and hotels and restaurant services industry.

121. Both adults (over 25 years) and youths (under 25 years) had reduced levels of unemployment in 1994. A total of 82,300 young persons were unemployed compared with 89,000 in 1993. Of this, males accounted for 30,200, or 36.7 per cent, and females for 52,100 or 63.3 per cent. The adult unemployed labour force fell by 3 per cent or a quantum of 2,600 to stand at 85,100 with men accounting for 29 per cent and women 71 per cent.

THE LABOUR FORCE

122. Both the male and female components of the labour force increased in 1994. There was an average of 574,800 males in the labour force, a 3,500 rise above 1993, while the female labour force averaged additions of 5,500 per annum between 1990 and 1994 to register 515, 800 in 1994. The net result of these movement was that the male and female proportions of the labour force remain virtually unchanged at 53 per cent for men and 47 per cent for women.

1996:

123. For the year ended 1996 an additional 2,300 more men over 1995's average of 551,00 were able to secure jobs while female employment declined by just under 6,000 persons with the reduction being concentrated among young persons under 25 years. These developments may be strongly associated with employment changes observed at both the sectoral and occupational levels. Employment among household heads also decreased by 1.2 per cent to a level of 450,600, with both men and women contributing equally to the decline. The notable increase of approximately 7.0 per cent in over-time work suggests increased capacity utilization of work-place infrastructure. There was also 6,000 more persons working on a full-time basis in 1996. At the same time, the pattern of reduction in part-time employment was maintained with a reduction of 9,500 so employed.

124. There were contrasting movements in unemployment between men and women in 1996 with the former group having a lowering of its level of employment whereas the latter was increased. Consequently just about two-thirds of all unemployed person were women.

EMPLOYMENT

125. Between October 1995 and January 1996 a little over 3,000 jobs were generated in the Jamaican labour market. This tendency towards a higher employment level continued until July 1996 with an additional 4,600 jobs being created over the January to July period. This resulted in a net expansion of 7600 in the employed labour force. The loss of 8500 jobs however, by October resulted in an average annual level of 959.800 for 1996, against 963,300 for 1995. The net loss in employment was borne solely by females, their employment being reduced by 5,900, as there was a modest increase in the male employed labour force with the creation of 2,300 jobs to move the employment level to 553,300.

Employment by Age and Gender

126. There was an upward movement in only one group, adult males (over 25 years), with employment averaging 431,100, representing an increase of 3,600. The level of employment for this group has been trending upwards over the past two years, and is strongly associated with the employment growth observed in the construction sector. Young females (under 25 years) experienced a decline of 6.5 per cent to 73,500, while that for their male counterparts was less pronounced with the employment levels for young males moving down by 1.0 per cent to 122, 200. It is likely that the reduction in the employment level and the demand for the labour of young women is linked to the contraction being experienced by the apparel sub-sector which traditionally employs large levels of young women. At the same time, employment for adult females remained virtually unchanged at 333,000, compared with 333,700 in 1995.

127. There was a similar pattern of change over the January to October 1996 period, with lower levels of employment for the youth. Despite fluctuations in employment in young males, the October figure of 121,800 was 1,400 less than that for January, with a stronger decline of 4,200 for young females. Regarding the employment position for adults, male employment trended upwards for the first three quarters of 1996 with an expansion of over 7,000 jobs followed by a relatively strong decline of 5,800 over the July to October period. This fall was not strong enough, however, to offset the gain of the January to July period. Consequently, the October level of 429,300 was higher than that at the start of the year. There was virtually no change among adult females with an employment level of 332,800 in October compared with 332,600 in January.

Employment by Household Status

128. There was a contraction in the employment of household heads (both sexes) which decreased by 1.2 percent to 450,600. Disaggregation by gender indicates that in absolute terms, the decrease was evenly distributed, but in percentage terms that for the female component of this category was almost two times that for males, 1.7 percent, compared with 0.9 percent. As a

result, the employment level for male heads was 293,700 and for females heads 156,900. For these categories, the highest level recorded during the year was 297, 200 in July for the former, and for the latter employment peaked at 157,900 in October.

Full and Part-Time Employment

129. In terms of gender disaggregation of hours worked, there was an inverse relationship in the percentage distribution. While men and women workers accounted for 59.0 per cent of part-time and full-time jobs, women were more predisposed to work part-time, whereas men were more likely to be employed on a full time basis.

Employment by Occupation

130. Service workers, shop and market sales workers experienced the largest absolute and percentage increase of 7,900 and 5.7 per cent to average 145,500 in 1996. Women continued to dominate with respect to their contribution to this sector's (that is, the services producing sector) higher employment level, accounting for approximately 78.0 per cent of the increase. Among the traditional "white collar" occupations, employment for professionals, senior officials and technicians increased by 1.3 per cent to 123,400; however for the clerical group, there was a decrease of 6.7 per cent to 75,000. There was no deviation from the gender composition of these two occupational categories in 1996; women accounted for 57.0 per cent of professionals and 77.0 per cent of clerks. There was a net increase of 2,600 to a level of 185,500 among workers employed in elementary occupations; this increased was attributable to the additional 6,100 men who were absorbed by the category, as the number of women employed was 3,500 below the 1995 figure.

131. Consistent with reduced labour demand in the agricultural sector, fewer skilled agricultural and fishery workers were employed in 1996 than in 1995, their level moving down by 3.3 per cent to 186,100. There was an additional 1,800 employed male operators and assemblers in 1996 compared with 1995, this in keeping with the buoyant food processing, and beverages and tobacco sub-sectors. However, owing to developments in the apparel and sewn-products sub-sector, there was an almost equal reduction in the number of females employed by the occupation. Consequently, the overall employment level for 1996 was 69,500 as against 69 200 in 1995.

Unemployment

132. There was an improvement in male unemployment, as the male unemployed labour force declined by 8.3 per cent to register 61,300. This has been influenced primarily by the growth experienced in construction with its demand for elementary occupations. The unemployment situation for women , however deteriorated with a total of 1,900 more women being out of work. The female unemployed labour force stood at 121 700 or 1.6 per cent above the 1995 figure. This increase in female unemployment was partially attributable to the decline in employment opportunities in the female dominated sectors such as the community, social and personal services

sector, garments and manufacturing.

133. As a result of the above movements, the proportion of unemployed men decreased to 33.5 per cent from 35.8 per cent, while that for unemployed women increased to 66.5 per cent from 64.2 per cent. Nonetheless, the traditional disparities in terms of gender and age were still evident during 1996. Young females (under 25 years) had the highest unemployment rate of 47.0 per cent in 1996, compared with 34.4 for their male counterparts. Among adults (over 25 years), the rate for women was almost three times that for men, 14.5 per cent as against 5.2 per cent. At the same time the rate for young persons (both sexes) was 34.4 per cent compared with 9.5 per cent for adults.

The Labour Force

134. The tendency to a growing labour force was arrested in 1996, as the size of the labour force averaged 1,142,700 in 1996, indicating a reduction of 7,300 compared with 1995. During the period January to July, there was a contraction of over 9,000 persons followed by some recovery however, between July and October with the addition of 4,200 persons. The observed contraction in the labour force is due to the decrease among the youth (persons under 25 years), as their level moved down by 8,600 to 298 400. This contraction in the youth labour force can be attributed to two factors: (a) the ageing of the population, characterized by the decline observed in the youth population over the past four to five years; and (b) the withdrawal of young persons from the labour force to participate in training programmes such as the National Youth Service (NYS) and vocational training offered by HEART/NTA which target this age cohort. Over the review period, participation in the NYS had more than doubled, while there was a 16.0 per cent increase in enrolment in vocational programmes offered by HEART/NTA. There was little change in the adult labour force which was 844 300 in 1996 as against 843,000 in 1995.

135. Both the male and female components of the labour force registered lower levels in 1996 compared with 1995. There was an average of 614 600 males in the labour force, a fall of 3,300, while the female labour force experienced a reduction of 4,000 to average 528,200. These movements resulted in the male/female proportion of the labour force remaining unchanged at 54.0 per cent and 46.0 per cent respectively. There was also a downward movement in the labour force participation rate which stood at 67.7 per cent in 1996, down from 69.0 per cent in 1995. The decline was almost evenly distributed between men and women; that for the former group decreased by 1.3 percentage points to 75.5 per cent, and the latter by 1.2 percentage points to 60.6 per cent.

Article 12

1. **Access to Health Care Services:**

136. The Ministry of Health, Jamaica, is the principal provider of health care for the population

operating under the principles outlined in three main policy documents: the Population Policy and the Primary Health Care Strategy (1977), the National Health Policy (1991), and Health For All By the Year 2,000. Specific comprehensive references to the health of women are not contained in theses policy documents, but maternal and child health and family planning are identified as priority programmes.

137. The Government of Jamaica through an island wide network of health centres provides comprehensive maternal and child health services which include ante, intra and postnatal services, child health, immunization and family planning. The government's endorsement of the primary health care strategy in 1978 is well established in its organisation of basic care for women and children in the population.

2. Maternal Health

138. Maternal Health Programmes in Jamaica target women between the ages of 15-49. In 1989 the goals for maternal health included coverage of ante-natal care for 90 per cent of pregnant women, as well as increasing the number of antenatal visits per women and the number of women starting care before 16 weeks of pregnancy. By 1994 the major focus of maternal health was the reduction of Maternal Mortality to 10 per 10,000 live births by 1995 and this through a strategic set of objectives which included increasing women's knowledge of the importance of antenatal care, early identification and monitoring of high risk pregnancies, and the upgrading of the diagnostic skills of health care staff.

139. Approximately 70.0 per cent of the estimated population of mothers accessed postnatal services in 1994. Acceptance rate of family planning by this targeted population stood at 65.2 per cent, an increase of four per cent over that of 1993.

Family Planning

140. Through a network of health centres, hospitals, private physicians and NGOs, family planning services were delivered to a wide cross section of men and women throughout the periods under review.

141. A "Mapping Study and Private Physician Survey" was conducted in 1994. The purpose of the study was to identify and map: family planning service delivery points; services provided at each point; and to determine attitudes, skills and level of interest of providers.

142. The study showed that longer acting family planning methods were not readily available at affordable prices to rural consumers. It also indicated that long term and permanent methods were concentrated in urban areas and offered primarily by private physicians. As a result of the study, the National Family Planning Board is establishing initiatives with the private sector for the delivery of family planning services in order to strengthen the capacity of the private sector and improve the capability of physicians to offer services.

Health Education

143. The overall goal of health education is to provide educational opportunities in partnership with the population for the acquisition of knowledge and development of skills necessary to make positive health choices and to improve, maintain and promote health. This programme is executed by the Bureau of Health Education. An objective of the Bureau for the periods under review has been the development and promotion of community mobilisation programmes and the revitalization of health committees.

144. In 1994 the Bureau provided technical support to Health Education Officers and other Health workers in the implementation of programmes aimed at promoting healthy lifestyle and thereby reducing the morbidity and mortality rates.

145. Priority programmes such as the Breast-feeding Initiative, Control of Diarrhoeal Diseases and the promotion of Baby Friendly Initiative have also been supported by the Bureau. The main strategies used for the implementation of programmes are: training; community mobilisation and participation; Health Fair displays and exhibitions; as well as seminars and selected media programmes.

Article 13

146. The social security system of Jamaica allows men and women equal access to family benefits. The criteria used for accessing funds such as the National Insurance Fund are: old age, loss of spouse, invalidity, or maternity.

147. Public Assistance programmes in Jamaica are also equally accessible to men and women and provide aid to persons who either: (a) are not covered by the NIS; (b) have little or no income; and (c) are incapacitated. These persons are assisted through income transfer programmes under several categories of benefits, namely: Food Aid Programme; Poor Relief; Economic and Social Assistance; Programmes for the Aged; Programmes for Persons with disabilities; and Emergency Relief Services. Two of these programmes will now be looked at briefly.

1. Food Aid Programme

148. The Food Aid Programme is designed to supplement the food intake of persons who are at risk of becoming malnourished, and others who have little or no visible income. It provides improved nutritional levels for school children, pregnant and lactating mothers and children aged 0-6 years.

2. Economic and Social Assistance

149. This assistance is awarded on a needs assessment basis and has five components:

- Old Age Assistance: Payable to persons of retirement age who are without a regular income or pension;
- Incapacity Allowance: Payable to persons of retirement age, certified as permanently incapable of working and without an adequate income;
- Family Allowance: Payable for a specified number of weeks to the bread-winner who has responsibility for the maintenance of children under 18 years of age and where income is minimal.
- Rehabilitation Grant: Payable to the needy and to disabled persons in order to assist their rehabilitation through self-employment;
- Compassionate Grant: Payable in an emergency where no other form of assistance is available.

Loans, Mortgages and Credit

150. The economic situation of the 1980s challenged the initiative of Jamaican women, many of whom became entrepreneurs - either establishing their own micro-enterprises, such as hairdressing, street vending, handicraft and garment making, or else becoming Informal Commercial Importers (ICIs) - traders in consumer goods for sale locally and/or selling Jamaican goods overseas. These women have been able to use these strategies to help their families survive, and to ensure that their children are fed, clothed, and sent to school.

151. Some financial institutions have increased women's access to credit for establishing small businesses. The processes involved in obtaining this credit vary by different institutions, but it usually requires production of some collateral, and finding an acceptable guarantor. In most of the Approved Lending Agencies (ALAs), some business training, technical assistance and monitoring of progress are part of the loan package.

152. Women have been making use of the loans available. The Micro Investment Development Agency (MIDA) was launched in 1991 to serve as a catalyst to the activities of the micro-enterprise sector. In 1992, of the J$40 million distributed to 21 ALAs, 825 (37 per cent) of the 2,229 projects were managed by women, and 1,404 (63 per cent) by men. Women had a better track record of repaying loans than men, and are increasingly being regarded as better credit risks.

The tables which follow document the number and value of a sample of loans by 5 ALAs by age and gender:

Number and Value of Loans by selected ALAs by Gender and Location

		Project to date (1994)			
ALAs	**Location**	**Male**		**Female**	
		No.	**Value**	**No.**	**Value**
Assist	All Island	126	3,949,643	153	2,910,106
City of Kingston *C.U.	Urban	18	659,150	20	1,169,246
**J.T.A. C.U.	Urban	12	478,087	42	2,613,960
Self Start Fund	All Island	42	2,177,695	59	1,549,273
St. Mary C.U.	Rural	5	604,600	9	417,350
Total		203	$7,869,175	283	$8,659,935

* Credit Union

** Jamaica Teachers' Association Credit Union

Number and Average Loan Size by Age and Gender, 1993

	Total: December 1993			
Age	**Male**		**Female**	
	No.	**Average Loan**	**No.**	**Average Loan**
Under 26	31	20,812	23	32,323
26 - 35	80	38,135	107	29,042
36 - 45	63	47,029	108	34,327
46 - 55	19	32,020	36	24,611
55 and over	10	60,200	9	23,972
Total	203	$38,764	283	$30,601

153. The data show that more women than men have benefited from loans from these ALAs, and the total loan value is greater for women than for men. The latter table, however, demonstrates that women borrow less than men, on average. For both sexes, the 26 - 45 year olds were the major borrowers, with more women than men in the 46 - 55 year range borrowing funds.

154. Women, and to a lesser extent men, participate in informal credit schemes such as community based revolving loans schemes and arrangements such as "partner", in which women (for the most part) save an agreed sum periodically and share the jack-pot on a revolving basis. This saving method allows women to have access to a larger than usual pool of funds for school fees, books, furniture, to name a few.

155. Several women farm land that they do not own, either because they lack the financial resources, the information on how to purchase the land, or because it belongs to a relative who allows them to use the portion of land which they farm. Other women farm on government lands only to find themselves without a holding if and when the land is required for some other purpose.

156. The National Housing Trust has collaborated with private sector companies and with the help of overseas grants has initiated housing schemes targeted at the lower end of the middle income bracket. A number of purchases in these schemes have been made by women heads of households, but no figures could be obtained to compare ownership by sex.

Sports

157. Women and men have equal rights to participate in recreational activities, sports and cultural life in Jamaica. Most sporting facilities are to be found in schools, colleges, and universities where all students have access to them. These facilities are also to be found at sports clubs, though normally for club members and their families only.

158. There is also the Ministry of Labour, Social Security and Sport which is headed by a female and through the Institute of Sports undertakes to, "*encourage, promote, develop, and assist organisationally and wherever possible, financially, all forms of sports in Jamaica with emphasis on participation at the community, group, or individual level.*"

Article 14

159. The role and status of rural women in the development process has in recent years been a major issue on the agenda of developing nations and international development agencies alike. This is reflected in increased efforts to recognise and document women's contribution to the rural economy through agricultural production, which is still the principal economic activity in most rural areas.

160. While the official statistics indicate an "apparent decline" in the number of females involved in agricultural activities between the early 1900s to the present, women still constitute an important force in the production and marketing of agricultural commodities in Jamaica.

161. The 1978/79 agricultural census showed that of a total of 182,169 farms island wide which were in the single-holders category 35,185 or roughly 19 per cent were operated by women. Similarly, a sample survey carried out in 1979, in the Two Meetings and Pindars Watershed under the Second Integrated Rural Development Project showed that 22 per cent of the holdings were managed principally by women. It was also found that even where they are not the principal farm operators, women participate regularly in farm production activities at every level. This includes, planting, harvesting, animal husbandry, and general farm management tasks. It was found that in as many as 27 per cent of the households there are women who independently take decisions concerning changes in farming practices.

162. The most recent Labour Force Statistics (1992) shows a total 65,000 women in Agriculture representing 23 per cent of the total agricultural labour force. This reflects the official figure recorded over the last decade which have ranged between 23-32 per cent females in agriculture.

163. The increasing focus on women's role in the agricultural and rural development process has not only served to highlight the value of their contribution but also to identify the factors which limit their participation.

164. In Jamaica, underlying social and cultural values influencing attitude and behaviour, are much greater barriers to women than institutional factors. Agricultural programmes, for example, are generally open to both men and women but in certain types of projects women tend to be under-represented.

165. One important example of this is the Small Farmers Development Programme (1983-1988) which had credit as one of its biggest components. An evaluation of the programme in 1987 showed that approximately 83 per cent of the participating farm-holders were male whereas 16 per cent were female, with "gender not stated" for 1 per cent. Of note is the fact that the percentage females in the programme was significantly lower than the overall percentage of females in the agricultural labour force as recorded in the official statistics.

166. This reflects the fact that while there are no legal or set institutional policies which limit women's access to agricultural credit, traditional land inheritance practices which favour male relatives, give women less access to landed security; which, in many instances largely determines one's capability to meet loan eligibility requirements. Evidence that women have less access to land is borne out in the fact that average farm size is generally lower for them than for men.

167. While recognizing the need for women to be given special consideration in the agricultural and rural development thrust, it is sometimes difficult to isolate women's problems from those of

the household, men, or small farmers as a group. This difficulty is particularly evident in the case of analysis of factors accounting for low productivity, low level of income, and rural poverty in general.

168. The adverse socio-economic and ecological factors facing female farmers (example farming on marginal hillside lands, and limitations to accessing credit) are very often the same ones experienced by their male counterparts. However, in many instances it is a question of degree, so that while men and women face the same problems, the situation of women is generally worse. This is borne out in data on access to credit and land ownership.

Contribution of Women to Family Income

169. From an occupational standpoint, data from a 1989 Survey of Living Conditions showed that households headed by self-employed agricultural workers were among the poorest group with a mean per capita expenditure of US$690.43 which was just 71 per cent of that of the typical Jamaican household. On the other hand households headed by professional, technical or administrative workers had a mean per capita expenditure of US$2,108.52.

170. Among the rural, poor female-headed households are considered to be one of the most vulnerable groups. This includes women farmers and wage labourers. In the 1988 Rural Farm Family Development Study in Western Jamaica farm incomes varied on the eight sites studied but generally tended to be low.

171. Against this background of generally low income levels in farm households the labour contribution of all members including women is very critical for increasing earnings from agricultural activities.

172. For the Women Food Producers' Survey (1993) it was not possible to accurately calculate the precise labour contribution of women on the farm or the level of income generated. However there are clear indications that:

(a) Agricultural activities constitute the main source of income as off-farm employment is limited and only about a third of the families (32 per cent) received remittances from persons outside the household.

(b) The majority of the households surveyed were female-headed and the respondents and other women in the household participated just as much or more than men in most of the productive activities analysed.

Participation in Development

173. Government policy initiatives in the Agricultural Sector are generally intended to be equally applicable to men and women, rendering participation in development projects and programmes open to both. In reality, however, there is usually a marked differential in policy benefits accruing to men as compared with women. This is most pronounced in the areas of access to productive resources such as land and credit and participation in extension and training programmes. In these areas women are represented to a much smaller degree than men, not only in absolute terms but also relative to their level of participation in Agriculture as reflected in official statistics which grossly under-estimate their contribution.

174. Women's unequal access to resources and benefits of curren. policies and programmes within the Agricultural Sector usually cannot be traced to outright discrimination from a legal, regulatory or institutional standpoint. The factors which account for this state of affairs are largely related to cultural traditions which are sometimes re-reinforced by stereotypes held by certain officials involved in rural development, for example, the complaint by some women that male extension officers do not regard them as "serious" farmers.

175. The lack of awareness of policies and programmes, on the part of women themselves, has also been a contributory factor to their limited access to agricultural development benefits. Some of the policies specifically directed at women will now be looked at.

Policies Directed Specifically at Rural Women

176. In 1987, a National Policy Statement on Women was drafted by the Women's Bureau in Jamaica, with the collaboration of a number of agencies. This statement represented a major step in recognizing the need for a Gender approach in policy formulation and was later formally adopted by Cabinet. Four principles were outlined as essential to policy development in all sectors:

i) All policies of the Government must reflect a full recognition of the equal and complementary partnership of women and men.

ii) Economic and social development policies and programmes must provide for equality of access to resources by both men and women.

iii) In policy planning, special consideration must be given to women's multiple responsibilities in the household. In particular, policies must take account of the high percentage of women of all ages who are single parent and sole supporters of their families.

iv) Special measures must be developed to compensate for historic and current disadvantages experienced by women.

177. As part of the implementation strategy for the policy statement, intra-ministry committees were also established to track progress within individual Ministries and report to the inter-ministry committee, on problems or difficulties in the process of incorporating the Plan of Action in the particular ministry's activities. Certain immediate goals were identified for various sectors, including agriculture. With specific regard to this sector, it was stated that:

> *Recognizing the benefits to the economy and to women of increased opportunity, and income in entrepreneurial and agricultural activities, the Government will promote the identification and upgrading of women's existing skills and promote new opportunities, and will also take measures to address constraints such as access to credit, access to markets and the need for support services.*

178. The preparation of the National Five Year Plan for 1990-1995 also saw an elaboration of policies related to women. Women's potential contribution to rural development was addressed by the Women's Task Force, headed by the Bureau of Women's Affairs. Among the policy objectives and strategies outlined in the document produced by the Task Force (Five Year Development Plan for Women 1990-1995) the following are related to rural women:

(i) to devise appropriate systems of training for women in agriculture;

(ii) to upgrade women's limited access to credit, marketing and support services in agriculture, with particular emphasis on entrepreneurial and agricultural activities of women;

(iii) to mobilize farmers and unemployed women in the development of small community-based farm projects that will improve domestic food crop production.

179. Specific programme and project areas suggested included the promotion of teacher/training in all areas with emphasis on Agricultural Science; the targeting of small farmers with special emphasis on giving women-farmers access to land, credit, and co-operatives; the upgrading of training for extension officers and aides, and the development of training for para-professionals as agricultural "promoters"; collaboration with community councils and community organizers in devising training modules to enhance the development of micro-enterprises in Agriculture.

Health Care

180. The Health Reform and Rationalization programmes which were started in 1995 with the objectives of increasing efficiency, accessibility and the delivery of quality health services have, to date, achieved notable success. Decentralization of health care and facilities throughout the entire island was one of the areas addressed by these programmes.

181. **Decentralization**. Legislation was enacted during the latter part of 1996 for the four

Administrative /Management Health Regions to become Regional Health Authorities managed by Regional Boards and Directors appointed by the Ministry of Health. Under these four Health Authorities, there will be increased autonomy for specific parishes and for integrating Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Health Services such that timely decision-making and the efficient use of resources will result in improved quality of care and client satisfaction.

182. Family planning services are also available island wide through the public health system. The main aim of the national programme is replacement fertility to achieve a population of not more than 3 million by the year 2000. As already discussed under Article 12, a "Mapping Study and Private Physician Survey" conducted in 1994 showed that longer acting family planning methods were not readily available at affordable prices to rural consumers. The report also indicated that long term and permanent methods were concentrated in urban areas and offered primarily by private physicians.

183. There continues, however, to be an overall shortage of health care personnel within critical areas such as Nursing, Pharmacy, Public Health and Therapeutic Radiography having vacancies ranging from 40.0 per cent to 65.0 per cent in 1996. The general shortage of health care personnel is compounded by its uneven distribution throughout the health regions in terms of numbers, level of care, and specialities. Means are being sought to resolve these inequalities so that the Government's goal of accessible, equitable, and affordable quality health care for both the rural and urban population can be achieved.

Social security

184. Social security programmes which are available to women in urban areas are also made available to women in the rural sectors. There are, however, no social security policies which single out rural women and this is something that the government of Jamaica will have to address in the future. The strides which are now being taken in recognizing the contribution of rural women to the economy makes this objective even more imperative.

Education and training

185. Jamaica is committed to ensuring the accessibility of formal and non-formal training and education to rural women.

186. Education statistics for the Caribbean as a whole and Jamaica in particular indicate that overall, females are out-performing males, this, however, disguises the fact that Gender-based specializations along traditional lines are still very evident in the educational system. Agricultural education is one of the areas in which this obtains.

187. In Jamaica, the provision of Agricultural Education is focused at the secondary and tertiary level, coupled with attempts at revitalising and expanding agricultural instruction in primary schools.

188. The principal institutions currently offering education and training in Agriculture are:

i) Technical High Schools, located in rural Jamaica, such as Holmwood in the parish of Manchester; Dinthill in St. Catherine, and St. Elizabeth Technical in St. Elizabeth; as well as Vocational Training Institutes, the main ones being the Elim and Knocklava Agricultural School and the HEART training programme at Ebony Park Clarendon, for practical agricultural training;

ii) The College of Agriculture, Science and Education (CASE) located at Passley Gardens, Portland, offers training to the Associate Degree level. Its graduates are expected to meet the requirements of Government's Agricultural extension and support (technical) services and the country's need for farm managers; and

iii) The University of the West Indies (UWI), Faculty of Agriculture at the St. Augustine campus Trinidad, which provides training to the graduate (B.Sc.) and post-graduate levels (M.Sc, Mphil, Ph.D.).

189. In Jamaica ministerial portfolio responsibility for agricultural education rests with the Ministry of Education.

190. For many years, the Rural Family Development Programme implemented through the Agricultural Extension Services, has placed special emphasis on the training of women farmers. In keeping with the policies and objectives of the Five Year Plan (1990/91-1994/95) for Agriculture, consideration was also given to the needs of women farmers, but the impact to date has not been significant.

191. Academic educational programmes aimed at providing functional literacy, primary, and secondary programmes are also accessible to rural women.

Self help groups, co-operatives and community activities

192. In some areas rural women have organized themselves into self-help groups and co-operatives in order to make use of economies of scale in purchasing inputs and marketing agricultural produce. Organisations in which this group of women are involved in include: sports clubs, social clubs, church clubs, farmer organisations, community groups and parent/ teachers associations.

Land and Credit Policies

193. In respect of land ownership and use under the law, men and women have equal access. Similarly, land policies are not articulated with any distribution being made on the basis of Gender. However, in practice there is evidence of unequal access between men and women in the ownership and use of land resources.

194. The Agricultural Credit Bank (ACB) of Jamaica is a private Limited Liability Company with Government as its sole share-holder and is the chief financial distributing arm of the government. The bank functions as a wholesale credit institution, its major objective being to mobilize public sector financing for agricultural credit for on-lending through its affiliated participating financial institutions, the Peoples Co-operative Banks (PCBs), as well as commercial banks. The bank has also been restructured and strengthened to improve the range of services being provided to the farming community.

195. The Field Operations Division of the ACB which oversees the small farmer programme has been re-organised to include a number of developments. They have also been given responsibility to provide credit services and give technical assistance to small farmers in preparing farm development plans and projects for loans.

196. Gender is not a written consideration for receiving a loan through the bank.

Housing and Utilities

197. Generally, housing is still poor and many rural people continue to build their own houses. The National Housing Trust has however collaborated with private sector companies and with the help of overseas grants has initiated housing schemes targeted at the lower end of the middle income bracket. Electricity and sanitation are also lacking in rural areas especially in those villages which are far removed from the capitals. Water supply in such areas tend to be from natural rain water collected in tanks. In times of drought when the tanks are empty, water is supplied through the ministry which has responsibility for public utilities. Transportation in rural areas continue to be poor, mainly because of poor roads which cause vehicles to wear and tear quickly and deter would-be public transportation operators.

Article 15

198. Jamaica has done much to ensure the equality of women with men before the law in recent times. Some of the laws passed during the periods under review which specifically relate to married women will now be looked at.

The Matrimonial Property Act

199. The Parliament of Jamaica is currently reviewing this law and a new Family Property Law is expected shortly.

200. Under the present law if a husband transfers property to a wife it is assumed to be a gift at common law and the husband cannot claim it back without bringing strong evidence that he did not intend it to be a gift.

201. This presumption of advancement as it is called in law, has been weakened over time as women became more independent and gained more property rights in law.

202. Under the Married Woman's Property Act a woman may bring an action in the Supreme Court or Family Court/ Resident Magistrates Court requesting a division of property acquired in marriage as between herself and her husband.

203. If the property is land then the best Court in which to bring this action is the Supreme Court as any changes in title to land can only be ordered by that Court.

The Matrimonial Causes Act 1989

204. This Act has, *inter alia*, modified the common law rule that a wife take her husband's domicile. Under the current Act, the domicile of a married woman is to be determined as if she were a single woman for the purpose of matrimonial proceedings. Article 2 provides a more detailed reading of the provisions of this Act.

The Jamaican Nationality (Amendment) Act

205. This Act is also dealt with in more detail under Article 2. For the purposes of this particular Article, however, it should be noted that it is through the provisions of this Act that women who have had to relinquish their Jamaican citizenship upon marriage to foreign men are now able to apply for reacquisition of their Jamaican citizenship.

Family Property (Bill in Draft)

206. This Act will provide for a more equitable division of property between spouses upon the breakdown of marriage or the termination of a common law union.

Article 16 (1)

207. (A) In Jamaica women have the same right to enter into marriage as men.

(B) Once pass the age of 18 years, women may legally enter into marriage of their own free will. A female under 18 years of age must have the consent of her parents to marry. The legal definition of "a minor" in Jamaica, is a person 16 years and under. A female falling in this age group, therefore, may not legally marry in Jamaica.

(C) Men and women do not share the same rights and responsibilities during marriage. For example, it is the responsibility of the husband to maintain his wife and children, whereas the wife is only required to maintain her children if the father is incapable of, or fails to do thus.

Either party may sue for divorce on the ground of irretrievable breakdown of the marriage. Under the new Divorce Act, however, a husband petitioner must state whether the wife has given birth to a child during the marriage of which he husband is not the father.

There is no equivalent provision concerning children fathered by the husband. This provision is a new addition never required before, and the fact all divorce petitions must specify this is humiliating and discriminatory against women.

Upon dissolution of the marriage, women and men have equal rights to children but the courts tend to favour the mother.

(D) As stated above, upon dissolution of a marriage, both the father and the mother have equal access to children produced within the union. In practice, however, the courts tend to favour the mother, especially where the mother has raised the child up to the time when the custody action is brought.

Men in the above situation will find it difficult to obtain custody unless they can prove the mother is unfit or her circumstances are so economically and socially deprived that the child would suffer serious disadvantage.

People entitled to bring an action for custody are mother, father, or any guardian either mother or father may appoint to act upon their death.

Parents have an inherent right to custody unless they have abandoned, deserted or abused their children.

The fundamental rule of law is that the interest of the child is paramount.

(E) Husbands and wives have more or less the same rights in respect of the spacing and number of children. This is to say that there are no legal obstacles to a woman using contraceptives to control the number of children she has. This does not include abortion which is still illegal in Jamaica. In practice, however, women are sometimes prevented from using contraceptives by religious affiliations which prohibit the use of artificial means of birth control, or by over-bearing partners who might want to have several children for a number of reasons.

Family planning education is provided through the National Family Planning Board and various NGOs. Information on family planning has already been provided under Article 12.

(F) Men and women have the same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship and adoption of children. The right of guardians to children is

guardianship and adoption of children. The right of guardians to children is discussed in (E) above. The Jamaican Nationality (Amendment) Act 1993, *inter alia*, confers Jamaican citizenship in the case of a joint adoption, on an adopted minor where either of his/her adopters is a Jamaican citizen.

(G) A spouse is equally entitled to choose a profession and an occupation. A wife may assume her husband's surname although she is not obligated to do so.

(H) The Matrimonial Property Act discussed in Article 15 is the legislation which governs property acquired during marriage and the disposal or division of the same upon dissolution of the marriage.

Article 16 (2)

208. The betrothal and the marriage of a child does not have legal effect in Jamaica. The minimum age for marriage is 16 years for girls with the consent of their parents. At 18 years and over females are able to marry without the consent of parents.

For a marriage to be legally recognised in Jamaica it has to be duly registered.

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